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ABSTRACT

The actual process of reading diagnosis and the effects of examiner/student interaction upon the diagnostic outcome were explored in this study. A testing session of approximately 50 minutes, conducted by a university professor to determine the reading problems of a nine-year-old boy, was videotaped. Applying an ethnomethodological model for discourse analysis to utterances generated during the testing event, the investigators were able to explore reading test discourse in terms of speech acts, moves, and exchanges and to compare portions of this discourse of the same testing event across time as well as with discourse generated during classroom lessons. Several categories of evidence for the interactional nature of the testing event emerged from the data. The set-up, the test event, and classroom discourse all differed in interaction patterns. The data supported the notion that the interaction of tester and student is negotiated during the testing event by both participants. Thus, while engaged in this test event the participants created as well as interpreted the context for their own behaviors. (MKM)

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Negotiating a reading diagnosis

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INTRODUCTION

This paper presents preliminary findings of an analysis of the interactional activities that occurred between an experienced diagnostician and problem reader during an individualized testing situation. It is suggested that the reading behaviors obtained by the diagnostician are at least partly due to the interactional activities that took place. Using a theoretical position drawn from ethnomethodology, it is proposed that the examiner and student jointly produce a reading diagnosis.

Research in the diagnosis of reading disabilities has not suffered from lack of attention. However, the literature has generally assumed that the results of diagnoses are representative of the students' underlying mental abilities and strategies as applied to reading tasks. Several researchers have proposed that the various theoretical models of reading employed by examiners, or those models implicitly represented in the reading tests themselves, contribute to the diagnostic outcome (Harste and Burke, 1977; Mosenthal, Walmsley and Allington, 1978; Pearson, 1978). Ultimately, however, diagnosis is still considered to be a product of the student's reading abilities and the examiner's skill in observing the student's strengths and weaknesses. The actual process of diagnosis, and the effects of examiner/student interaction upon the diagnostic outcome, have remained an unaddressed issue in reading research.

A number of ethnomethodological, investigators (Cicourel, 1974; Mehan and Wood, 1975; Mehan, 1978) have proposed a reconceptualization of the testing process as an interaction within which the tester and test taker achieve a score for the student by interpreting each others responses in a way that

contributes to or detracts from the ultimate findings. According to this view, the interaction which the research had previously ignored or had assumed to have a neutral effect on diagnostic outcome, now has been considered to be a contributing factor in the evaluation of students' abilities. The interactional processes that occur during a testing situation, as analyzed by ethnomethodologists, represent an active negotiation between the participants, and this negotiation influences the assessment findings. The interactional activities of the participants represent a collaborative effort (Erickson and Shultz, 1977) and this effort is an inevitable result of social interaction (Mehan, 1978).

Such ethnomethodologicial studies have provided evidence that during social interaction, participants tacitly select verbal and nonverbal channels of communication to interpret and cue each other to the continuing context (Bremme and Erickson, 1977; McDermott, 1976; Shultz, 1977). The participants involved in social interaction monitor each other's behavioral displays and use these displays as cues for determining the meaning of the continuing interaction. In considering reading diagnosis from the same theoretical perspective, it is argued that through the nonverbal displays that take place between examiner and student, each unconsciously signals the other as to the context of the interaction. Because of the examiner's interpretation of the ongoing activities, the testing procedures and response cues by the examiner vary, and the interaction that ensues between examiner and student affects diagnostic outcomes.

Several researchers with this perspective have provided evidence of the importance of nonverbal information involved in face to face interaction. McDermott (1976) explained that the difference in the classroom behavior of good and poor reading groups were a consequence of the students' rational

intrepretations of the different turn-taking rules operating between the groups and the teacher, and that these differences could be understood through the various nonverbal cues involved in taking turn to read. Bremme and Erickson (1977) demonstrated that students' success in claiming a turn to speak in class discussion was dependent upon their success in monitoring and appropriately interpreting certain available nonverbal information. Shultz (1977) reported that the differences in children's behavior while playing a teacher created game could be understood by the individual children's ability to successfully monitor the changing context of the interaction, which was again signalled in part by nonverbal cues. Erickson (1975) explained that the success of counselling sessions, in terms of facilitating students' goals, depended upon the success of the student/counselor interaction observable through analysis of participants nonverbal information as viewed on videotape recordings.

In analyzing the types of verbal information supplied by test examiners to kindergarten children, Leiter (1974) found that the questioning procedures varied across examiners and that the differences in test administration contributed to the students' placement in first grade classes. Mehan (1978) reported an analysis of tester-student interaction during the administration of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children in which a student's score could potentially increase by twenty seven percent depending on the type of tester cueing. A similar trend was reported in the administration of the Basic Concept Inventory with students' testing behaviors conforming to manual prediction only 66% of the time. Rather than considering a test result as an objective social fact, Mehan (1978) and Leiter (1974) have instead considered a student's test result to be an interactional accomplishment between tester and test taker.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this paper derives from two sources, the first being recent sociolinguistic analyses of spoken discourse during classroom lessons (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). A central interest of such analysis is not the grammatical, referential or formal properties of an utterance but rather the function or use of an utterance within a particular social situation and as part of a particular sequence within a developing discourse. Whether an utterance is intended to elicit a response, whether it itself constitutes a response, whether it is intended to initiate an activity or to terminate it are examples of the kinds of questions addressed in a functional analysis of spoken discourse. The descriptive model formulated by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and adopted for this study assumes a hierarchical or rank ordering of units defined by their function in discourse and combined in predictable ways to form higher level structures. While the unit of analysis or the lowest rank cannot be further subdivided in terms of function, it can have a grammatical composition of words, phrases or clauses. The units at higher ranks can, however, be composed of units at ranks below. Furthermore, discourse analysis is viewed as a level of language description that is separate from pedagogical and grammatical analysis with overlap between the lower ranks of discourse and grammar and between the higher ranks of discourse and pedagogical organization. For example, what has been defined as "lesson" may be called a "period" in pedagogical terms and what is called a speech "act" in discourse may be described in grammatical components as a "clause". Since pedagogical description does not address linguistic units and since grammatical description does not account for situated meaning both in terms of social context

and position in connected text, spoken discourse is posited as lying between these two levels of analysis.

At the lowest rank of discourse is the unit act which corresponds roughly to the grammatical unit clause. The four grammatical sentence types realize twenty one discourse acts, the major ones being elicitation, directive, and informative, which constitute the main part, or head, in teachers' initiating moves. Additionally, there is a predictable responding move from students to each of the teachers' initiating moves. Students react to a directive by performing the desired activity. They acknowledge that they are listening to information being presented and respond with a reply to elicitations. Subsequent follow-up moves by teachers provide feedback to the student's response. Teachers comment on and evaluate students' replies, often preceding these statements with one that acknowledges or accepts their response. Frequently the teacher will clue or provide additional information or prompt the student to continue. Teacher nomination of students and student bidding constitute part of the classroom exchange in that it is through these acts that students are granted a turn to speak. Additionally, teachers move to open, frame or focus the interaction by using a small set of words called markers ("well", "ok", "alright") to indicate boundaries in the discourse. In order to tell what the discourse is going to be about, teachers use a kind of commentary or metastatement ("I want to tell you about a king who lived long ago...) and to summarize preceding discourse, a kind of conclusion statement ("So then that's why...). When it is necessary to return the direction of the discourse back to a preceding level teachers use an act called a loop which is realized by words such as "You what?" or "Again?". Speech acts not directly related to the discourse but related to the situation are referred to as asides.

These speech acts then combine to form what has been termed moves, each having a different function and which in turn realize either boundary or teaching exchanges within a transaction. Boundary exchanges consist of framing and focusing moves while teaching exchanges are realized by opening, answering and follow-up moves. The function of boundary exchanges is to indicate the beginning or end of lesson phases. Teaching exchanges are characterized by their function to inform, elicit, check, reinitiate, and so on, as the individual steps in the on-going sequence of a lesson. At least three exchanges, a preliminary, medial and final exchange, typically constitute a transaction which combines with other transactions to form a lesson, the highest unit in discourse analysis.

While it may be argued that a diagnostic testing situation and a classroom lesson do not represent an equivalent context, the same system of analysis has been recently applied to the discourse generated in other situations, for example, doctor-patient interviews and committee and media discussions. While a rank system was found appropriate for discourse specific to interviews, such discourse was more restricted than classroom discourse in function and focus. That is, the range of structures within interview exchanges is more narrowly defined than those of the classroom, with no equivalent for the inform exchange. Because the purpose of a diagnostic testing situation is fact-finding as opposed to information transmission as in teaching, it was expected that the same narrower range of exchange structures would apply to the discourse generated in the diagnostic testing session. Following the system of analysis described in preceding paragraphs, the utterances spoken during the diagnostic testing situation were first classified according to the lowest unit of analysis, acts, which in combination constituted the structure for subsequent units of analysis

(move, exchange, transaction) within a system of continous classification. In other words, each successive utterance contributes to the frame of reference for interpreting the utterance that follows. The nature of the discourse that ensues during a diagnostic session could then be hypothesized in terms of acts, moves, exchanges and transactions.

Another area of inquiry into the structure of classroom lessons that is related to the question addressed by this study is that of communicative competence. According to recent investigations of student interactional competence, classroom lessons may be segmented by boundaries which not only indicate the beginning or end of teaching exchanges but also set up and wind up exchanges (Erickson, 1978; Mehan, 1978). These set up and wind up exchanges differ from teaching exchanges in that utterances appropriate to one may not be appropriate for the other. A student must be able to differentiate the interactional rules that operate within and across these lesson segments. In addition to describing the structure of the discourse generated during a diagnostic session, the data were further examined to determine if such segmentation could be applied to this situation as well as classroom lessons. That is, was the discourse different qualitatively at the beginning and end of the testing situation so that different interactional rules may in fact be operating during these times?

Method and Procedures for Analysis

A testing session of approximately 50 minutes, conducted by a university professor to determine the reading problems of a nine year old boy who was referred to the university reading clinic for a reading diagnosis and possible enrollment, was videotape recorded in the university media studio utilizing split-screen capabilities.

The verbal interaction which ensued during the course of the diagnosis was transcribed as were any nonverbal communications noticed by the investigators. Since the focus of this study is the nature of the interaction rather than the nature of student errors, utterances generated during this interaction were classified according to the system of discourse analysis described in the preceding section. This procedure allowed the investigators to talk about the diagnostic testing interaction in terms of speech acts, initiating, responding, and follow-up moves and various boundary or "teaching" exchanges that constituted the transactions within the testing session. Using this procedure it was possible to mark off segments of the testing situation in interactional terms and compare these with the pedagogical segments indicated by the examiner.[1] Additionally, segments analyzed for discourse structure could be compared with each other to determine whether the beginning or settling down segments and those at the end of the session could be differentiated structurally from the medial segments, thus providing some support for the notion of interactional rules operating differently across segments.

A second methodological component of this study tests the hypothesis that participants in an event continously signal to each other that they

are engaged in an interaction and that the responses of one participant mediate the responses of another. The structuring of the event then is not only recognized or marked by verbal and nonverbal behavior but it is also jointly accomplished by the participants. While the design of the study did not allow the event outcome or reading test score to be analyzed for the interactional component, the way in which initiating and responding moves by the examiner and the student changed over the course of the interaction were analyzed for frequency, quality or type and direction, thus presenting evidence for a negotiation process in the structuring of the testing event.

Analysis/Results

Exploratory analysis of the data including the verbal and nonverbal behavior of the participants in a testing event indicate that a reading diagnosis can be characterized as an interaction, the structure of which is negotiated by the participants. Furthermore this interaction may be described according to a rank scale model proposed for classroom discourse. While the preliminary and final exchanges within classroom transactions look very much like those generated during the testing event, the range of medial exchange structures is more limited during testing. Furthermore, transactions occurring at the beginning and end of testing events consist of exchange structures that are more varied and allow more opportunity for student initiated moves to both inform and elicit tester response.

Evidence for the interactional nature of the testing event is twofold. First, the examiner and student clearly marked junctures in the testing event through their generation of marker and metastatement utterances. Participant utterances mark shifts not only in the nature of the task presented to the student during the focused part of the testing event but also effect transitions from /set up/ to /focus/ and from /focus/ to /wind down/ and /wind up/ (See figures 2-3). In order to indicate their boundary function within the exchange, these utterances were assigned to a speech act class (marker, metastatement, starter). Portions of the transcript have been reproduced to show how these acts accomplish segmentation of the testing event.

Insert figure 1, 2, and 3 about here

A second category of evidence for the interactional nature of the testing event may be found in the differential nature of the discourse across the segments labelled /set up/ or /wind up/ and the event /focus/. While the discourse generated during /focus/ may be categorized as a series of teaching exchanges or transactions primarily initiated by the examiner with a teacher directive or teacher elicitation structure having predictable and appropriate student responding moves, the discourse recorded during unfocused segments for example, /set up/ yields an equivalent number of student initiated exchanges with the examiner generating the appropriate responding moves. (See figure 4).

Insert figure 4 about here

As described in a previous section, the "teaching" exchanges generated during classroom discourse fall into the primary categories of directive, informative and elicitation, the latter two being initiated by either teacher or pupil. These five categories of exchanges may be described in terms of the opening (I-initiate), answering (R-respond) and follow-up (F-feedback) moves which accomplish these exchanges. Exchanges initiated by students in classrooms differ from those of teachers in their recursive rule structure.

Teacher initiated inform exchange (I(R)) is used to pass on information; students may respond but usually do not. Pupil initiated inform exchange (IF), on the other hand, is usually followed by a teacher evaluation or comment about the interesting or relevant information provided. Exchanges which are designed to elicit verbal responses always include a follow-up evaluation if initiated by teachers (IRF), but only a teacher response if initiated by pupils (IR). For a pupil to follow-up or evaluate a teacher's response may be considered "checky."

It is interesting to note that discourse during the focused segment of the testing event differs from that of the classroom lesson focus in the almost complete absence of the inform exchange. The most common exchange was the directive which nearly always preceeded the examiner's elicitations. However, the elicitation exchange during the testing event was structurally different from that of the classroom in that the compulsory feedback or follow-up move rarely occurred. It appears that the non-occurance of feedback in the elicitation exchange would constitute a significant structural anomoly in classroom discourse. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975),

> The elicit exchanges which occur in the classroom have a different function from most occurring outside the classroom. Usually when we ask a question we don't know the answer; almost invariably the teacher does know the answer and children can get quite annoyed if he doesn't - after all that's his job. This fact enables us to explain why feedback is an essential element in an exchange inside the classroom (p. 51).

The data from this particular testing event would suggest that the structure of a testing elicitation exchange be expressed by an initiating and responding move with follow-up optional and

rarely executed (IR(F)) rather than the elicitation exchange of classroom discourse (IRF).

Another category of exchange that figured prominantly in this analysis because of its frequency of occurrance was the reinitiation exchange, similar to the elicitation exchange, except that its function is to repair a no response or wrong response by reinitiating the elicitation and providing the student with prompts or clues. Because the exchange appeared so often in this discourse, it may be a major category of exchange in the organization of discourse generated during test events.

An additional pattern that emerged in the analysis also speaks to the notion of a differential interaction across /set up/ or /wind up/ and /focus/ segments of the testing event. While the inform exchange was infrequently realized in the focus segment, it constituted approximately one-half of the exchanges in /set up/, the other primary exchange being elicitation.

The fact that the student initiated as many exchanges as the examiner during /set up/ has already been discussed. However, the structure of the opening (I), answering (R) and follow-up (F) moves that accomplished these student initiated exchanges rarely looked like the student initiated exchanges postulated by the discourse model for classroom lessons. They instead were structurally like those inform and elicit exchanges initiated by teachers. Once again the follow-up move assumes significance, in this case because it is absent from the pupil initiated inform exchange and occurs in the pupil initiated elicit

exchange, the reverse of what would have been predicted from classroom discourse. In other words, the structure of pupil initiated inform exchanges is typically realized by opening and follow-up moves (IF) whereas during /set up/ it looked like teacher initiated inform exchanges with an opitonal follow-up.

The same applies to the pupil initiated elicit exchanges which if occurring during /set-up/ may be accomplished not only by opening and answering moves but also follow-up, a structure not present for student initiated elicit exchanges during the classroom lesson but occurring in teacher initiated elicit exchanges. (See figure 4)

Since the beginning part of a testing event is usually assigned the function of "establishing rapport," it may be that a student is allowed more prerogative to open an exchange and follow the tester's responses with comments or evaluative statements of his own. Additionally, the type of information presented by the student need not be evaluated by the tester in terms of relevance or interest.

Besides suggesting that the interaction which ensues during a diagnostic testing event may be characterized by the organizational and discourse models hitherto applied to classroom lessons with different segments of the event obtaining different examiner/student exchanges, the evidence also suggests that at least some aspects of these exchanges are subject to negotiation by the participants and change over time. Reinitiation, the "teaching" exchange initiated by the teacher to elicit an appropriate reply after the student has either supplied no response or a wrong one, was selected for closer analysis as it occurred during the oral reading tasks. (The structure of this type

of exchange may be expressed as IRIRF when no response is generated or IRF(I)RF if an incorrect one is provided). The same question may be restated or rephrased or the teacher may prompt or clue the appropriate response. Although this pattern was recurrent across the focused segments, it was subjected to further analysis only in the oral reading segments because previous research has implicated teacher prompting or clueing as an influence on the strategies students use when reading.

It was hypothesized that not only would teachers affect student responses but that student response would mediate the tester's behavior, thus supporting the notion of a negotiated interaction. Specifically the incidence of examiner response to student oral reading errors was tallied across oral reading segements and the wait or reaction time calculated. As indicated in figure 2 the number of clues or prompts increased across segments while the wait time decreased. Typically the tester made no response to student miscues during the first two oral reading tasks. In other words, the tester and student accomplished very few reinitiation exchanges. Of those attempted the ensuing clues or prompts were not provided until quite a few seconds had lapsed. Wait time decreased across each segment to interruption at the point of error while the number of tester responses increased.

Insert figure 5 about here

The number of verbal commentaries ("I don't know that word") by the student in response to his own errors also increased over the first two oral reading segments, peaked in the third segment and gradually diminished over the last two segments. More importantly, however, the quality of the students responses to his errors changed from direct elicitations("Could it be a name?"), even after the tester had indicated he would not provide help, to informing the tester that he did not know the word, to no response. A change in an inverse direction appeared to hold for the tester's responses to student error. As the student's solicitations became less direct, the tester's became more specific. Moving from no response to a nod of the head reply, to a verbal yes/no, to an accept reply ("that's okay"), to a situational clue ("What was the name of the story?"), to pointing to word segments ("Right between my fingers . . . what's that word?") to phonetic information clue ("Do you know long i?") to providing words at the point of interruption to acturally reading the text itself, the examiner clued student errors with increasing specificity to the reading behavior he was assessing.

In summary, by applying the Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) model for discourse analysis to utterances generated during the testing event, the investigators were able to talk about reading test discourse in terms of speech acts, moves and exchanges, and to compare portions of this discourse of the same testing event across time as well as with discourse generated during classroom lessons. Several categories of evidence for the interactional nature of the testing event emerged from the data. First, the participant utterances mark both shifts in

pedogogical units and junctures between the interactional units. Secondly, a differential interaction pattern, described in terms of speech acts, moves and exchanges, obtains across the interactional segments of /set up/focus/wind up/. Set up discourse is differentiated from focus discourse by not only the incidence of student initiated exchanges but also by the structure of those exhanges. In both the inform and the elicit exchanges initiated by students during set up, students open and follow-up their exchanges like teachers typically do and the tester responds to these initiations the way a student typically would. The focus of the test event is not only different from set-up but it also differs from classroom discourse in a number of ways. While the focused testing event is marked by the absence of the inform exchange, it includes a high incidence of reinitiation exchanges, both of which characterize classroom discourse in an inverse direction. Additionally, the structure of the elicitation exchange in testing is almost never realized by an evaluation or feedback move by the tester whereas the teacher always follows a student's reply with feedback. This finding suggests that a recursive structure for the generation of elicitation exchanges in test events may consist of only initiating and responding moves without the compulsory feedback (IR(F)). Finally, the data support the notion that the interaction of tester and student is negotiated during the testing event by both participants. It was demonstrated that the incidence, reaction time and quality of tester prompting and clueing during the reinitiation or wrong answer repair

exchanges of the oral reading segment changed over time as did pupil response to errors. Thus, while engaged in this test event the participants created as well as interpreted the context for their own behaviors.

Discussion

Since the interactional nature of the reading diagnosis had not been addressed previously, reading test scores have been treated as if they represent underlying reading skills or abilities that in some way "belong" to the student. The diagnostician's role has typically been seen as a passive recorder of the student's reading behaviors which he ultimately interprets in terms of student strengths and weaknesses. What the diagnostician perceives as student ability becomes operationalized in a classroom reading program for the student. Whether the student is placed in a good or poor reading group has far-reaching educational implications, both in terms of his/her immediate learning environment and his/her ultimate school career.

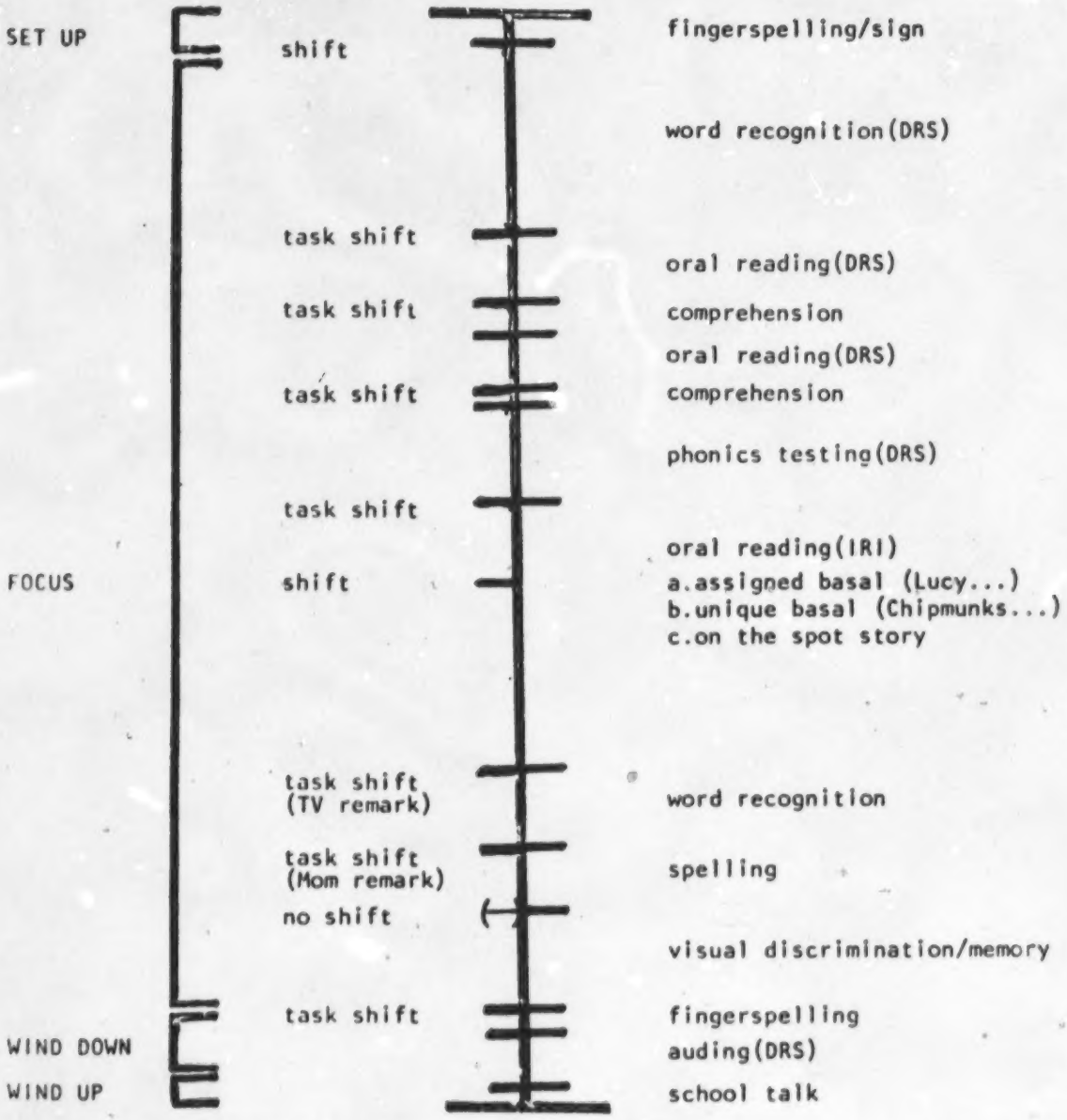
However, as suggested by this paper, the test event is an interaction with the tester and his/her poor reading student mediating each other's responses and jointly producing the reading behaviors under examination. Since testing behaviors appear to be generated by a particular context it would seem that test outcomes may have little significance outside that context. In other words, if test taking and test giving are an interactional accomplishment, student strategies, skills and abilities can not be assumed to function in the same way independently of the context that generated their occurrance. As the literature in classroom research indicates, situational context can have a powerful effect on student reading behaviors. Even when children enter school already attending to one linguistic dimension of print over another, for example, the word versus the letter, teachers can induce a change in that strategy by

prompting or clueing in another dimension or providing experience with material that is controlled for a particular linguistic element (Barr, 1975). Surely, in view of the influence of teacher-student interaction on the strategies employed by children in classrooms, what might mitigate the influence of tester-student interaction on the strategies employed by students in test situations?

Furthermore, once an unfavorable reading diagnosis is formulated for a student, and that diagnosis translated into special "prescriptive" teaching, there is evidence to suggest that the learning environment or context for poor reading students is qualitatively and quantitatively different than that of the better readers. One case study report (McGill-Franzen, in preparation) suggests that not only does the poorer reading group have a different instructional emphasis but also different materials and allocations of time. That is, the poorer readers spend more time setting up for reading, less that half the amount of time reading connected text, and more than twice as much time in instruction on grapheme/phoneme relationships. Additionally, they read one third as many words in connected text, the connected text itself being controlled by phonemic regularity. On outcome measures of student learning, phonemic regularity emerged as the most salient feature of the reading strategy used by the poorer group while frequency was most salient for the better group, both in the trigram condition and in the reading of text. In addition, when teacher interruption or wait time behavior was examined across reading groups during oral

reading, it appeared that teachers were more likely to interrupt the poor readers, thus increasing the segmentation of connected text into smaller but less meaningful units (Allington, 1978). Not only do the testing behaviors themselves change constitutively over the test event, but once the negotiated behavior is perceived as deficient, the student may be placed in a classroom context which continues to negotiate the terms of his disability.

Figure 1: A timeline for the reading diagnosis*



* 1 inch = 8 minutes

Figure 2: Transcript illustrating SET UP to FOCUS juncture.

	Transcript	Act	Move
SET UP	T: How old are you?	elicitation	
	S: Nine...	reply	
	T: Are you going to read for me?	elicitation	framing
	S: Yep...	reply	
	T: How about... I'm going to do it a special way here...first I've got a word hidden away here...	metastatement starter	focusing
	Okay?	check	
	Did you see that?	elicitation	
	Now here's how I'm going to do... like that in fast..	metastatement	
FOCUS	If I do it too fast I want you to tell me and I'll let you see it again but I want you to guess it first on the first time I show it to you...	starter directive	opening
	Alright?	check	
	Are you ready?	check	
	S: umhum...	acknowledge	
	T: All right.	marker	

Figure 3: Transcript illustrating Word Recognition to Oral Reading TASK SHIFT during FOCUS.

	Transcript	Act	Move
FOCUS	S: They're getting harder..	comment	
	T: I know...I told you I had some hard ones here.	conclusion	
	S: ... almost all of them are hard.	comment	framing
	T: We're almost done...	metastatement	
	S: ...I don't know that one...	reply	
	T: Okay.	accept	
Task shift	All right. (S sighs)	marker	
	T: I'm going to have you read out of this book... Okay?	metastatement / check	focusing
	S; Yes.	acknowledge	
	T: I want to get my pages right though..	aside	
	All right...	marker	
	I want you to read out of this book..	directive	
	and I'm going to ask you some questions afterwards... and I'm not going to help you with any of the words..	metastatement	opening
	All right...	marker	
	If you can't figure it out... you just skip it and go on or take a guess at it.	starter	
	All right? Are you ready?	check	
	Go ahead.	directive	

Figure 4: Transcript illustrating student initiated exchange during SET UP (fingerspelling).

	Transcript	Act	Move
	T: Do you know what this says(demonstrates sign)?	elicitation	opening
	S: Do you know what this is(demonstrates sign)?	elicitation	opening
	T: That's boy,is'nt it?	reply	answering
	S: No	evaluate	follow-up
SET UP	this is boy(demonstrates sign fo boy)	clue	reopening
	T: Okay...	acknowledge	answering
	No I don't know.	reply	answering
	S: ...says grandfather	clue	reopening
	this sign is grand...	informative	opening
	this sign is father...	informative	
	this sign is grandfather	informative	
	T: ...what was this?...	acknowledge	answering
	way out...you've got two lumps..		

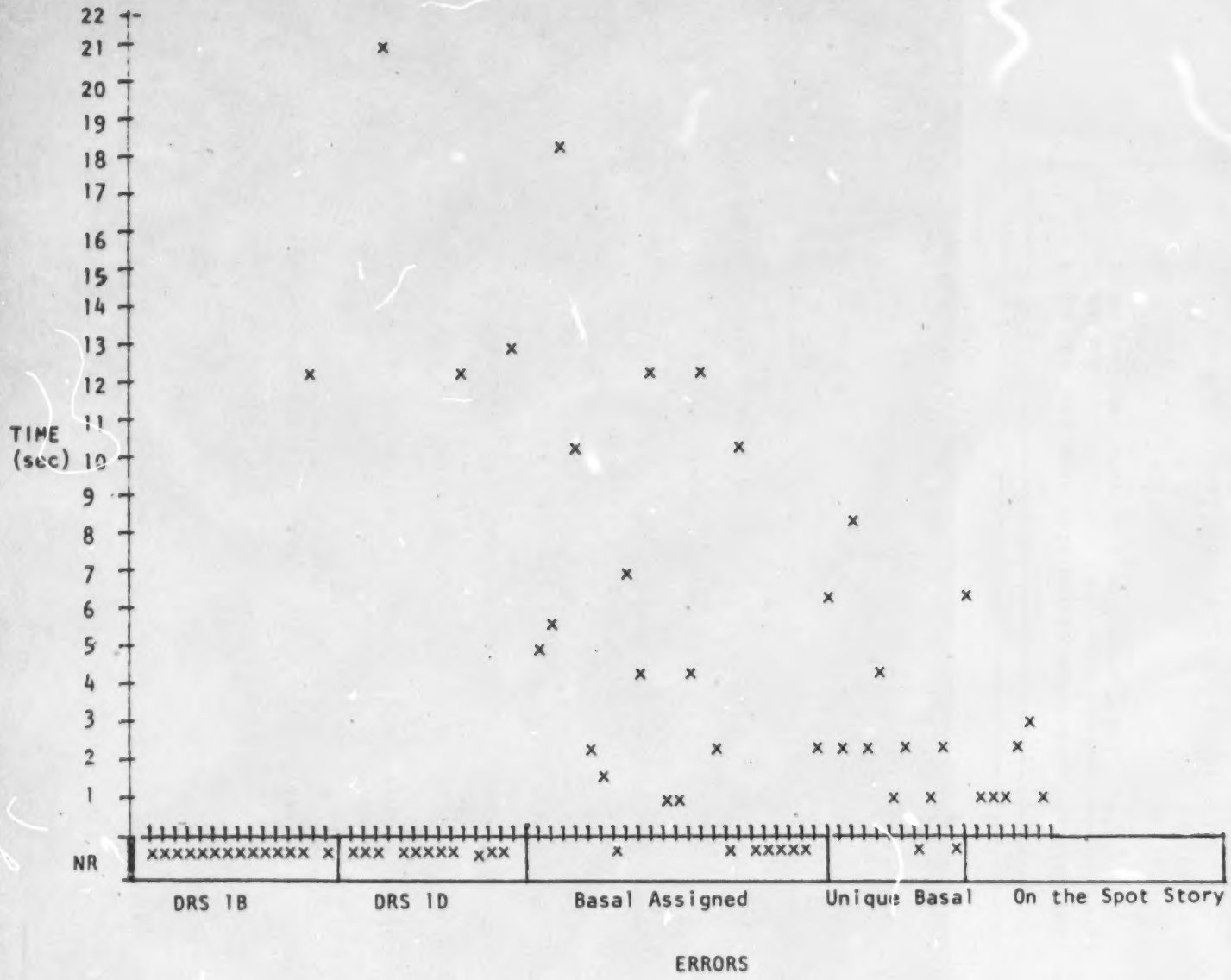


Figure 5: Incidence and reaction time of examiner response to oral reading errors

Footnotes

1. The examiner indicated that the basis for the task shifts which segment the testing event into pedagogical units (see Figure 1) was determined primarily by the nature of the task materials. Listed in sequence, thematerials are the Diagnostic Reading Scales (Monterey, CA: CTB-McGraw-Hill,1973),including Word List 1, passages 1A,1C orally read,3C auding,and Phonics Tests 1 and 3, informal inventories from two separate basal readers, informal word recognition test of the 25 most frequent words from the Durr Word List,an examiner generated spelling test and an examiner generated test of high frequency visually similar words.

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